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ABSTRACT

This packet contains four papers on organizational structure and strategy from a symposium on human resource development (HRD). The first paper, "Exploring Alignment: A Comparative Case Study of Alignment in Two Organizations" (Steven W. Semler), reports on a case study that compared the results of an alignment measurement instrument with an expert qualitative assessment while gathering narrative examples describing strong and weak alignment in an organization and offers validation evidence for the measurement instrument. The second paper, "Vertical Integration of HRD Policy within Companies" (A. A. M. [Ida] Wognum), reports on a study that explored whether so-called vertical integration of HRD policy at different organizational levels occurs within companies. Findings indicate a virtual absence of HRD policymaking or strategic HRD aligning in all aspects and levels within the companies studied. The third paper, "Speculating about the Connection of Management Development and Organizational Goals: A Post-Data Collection Interpretation" (Max U. Montesino) reports a post-data collection interpretation derived from the evaluation of an international management development program. The speculations offered emerged as themes from the data analyzed. Background information about the program evaluated is provided to contextualize the post-data collection interpretation. The final paper, "Strategic HRD and Stakeholder-Based Evaluation: A Conceptual Framework of In-Service Training Programs in the Evinset Project" (Sari Heinonen, John A. Niemi), proposes the concept of strategic HRD to support teachers' personal and professional development as an integral part of a school's organizational development. A stakeholder-based framework for evaluation of inservice training programs also is proposed. The papers contain reference sections. (KC)

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Organizational Structure and Strategy

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Exploring Alignment: A Comparative Case Study of Alignment in Two Organizations

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This study used questionnaire and case study methods to measure organizational alignment in two different organizations. The purpose of the study was to compare the results of an alignment measurement instrument with an expert qualitative assessment while gathering narrative examples describing strong and weak alignment. The paper describes the organizations' strong and weak points of alignment as reported by the instrument and by qualitative expert assessment and offers validation evidence for the measurement instrument.

Keywords: Organizational Alignment, Measurement & Instruments, Strategic HRD

Webster's dictionary defines alignment as "the proper positioning or state of adjustment of parts in relation to one another." This definition of alignment applies to organizations, too. In the organization, alignment is a measurement of how well the behavior of people and systems in the organization works together to support the goals and vision. It represents the essential agreement and cooperation between the organization's vision, strategy, culture, and systems. At its heart, alignment is how effective and efficient people are at moving their organization to where they want it to be.

As Peter Senge (1990) and others have demonstrated over the years, organizations are complex systems. Alignment is beneficial, to be sure, but very difficult to achieve. For an organization to have strong alignment, it must be aligned internally and externally. It must have put the internal systems into proper balance and tied the strategy and culture to the same vision. Each job, process, and system must reinforce each other. The practices and attention of the organization's culture must be focused on the things that will make it unified and successful. Any duplication or conflict between people, departments, or systems must be useful to the organization.

Anecdotes from business leaders, as well as related research, suggest that alignment is an important contributor to organizational performance, but not a guarantee (Labovitz & Rosansky, 1997). Alignment helps people know what to goals to pursue. It helps people accomplish their tasks efficiently. It engages their enthusiasm for their work. It provides smoothly operating systems and processes in which to work. Having all of these things in alignment leads to excellent performance. Keeping them in alignment is also important, and challenging. Over time, an organization must maintain and adjust alignment, both internally and externally, in order to survive in a changing marketplace. Fluid environments require rapid responses to opportunities and threats. In such an environment, strong but rigid alignment will only help an organization fail faster.

Organizational Alignment

The Semler Alignment Questionnaire (SAQ) was based upon a recently developed theory of alignment. Nadler and Tushman's initial work in the early 1980's provided the groundwork for alignment through the concept of *congruence*. In their article on diagnosing organizational performance (1989), they described the organization as a system of parts that must be properly balanced for best performance overall. Others have applied the concept in many other ways and places, including within the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award framework (NIST, 1994). While useful, most of these models have focused on only part of the whole picture of alignment. More recent work on alignment theory (Semler, 1997) provided a more comprehensive picture of how alignment affects performance and how it might be operationalized (Semler, 1999).

People within an organization have choices about how to allocate their time and attention. Alignment produces greater organizational performance by focusing this discretionary effort on the organization's vision. Alignment also helps optimize work systems and processes to make it easier to reach the organization's strategic goals (Semler, 1998; 1999). These two benefits of alignment give people in the organization the knowledge, the

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capability or skill, and the motivation to perform. They also give the organization's processes and systems the capability to focus people's energy on the right things. These effects of alignment account for both the systems and the cultural pieces needed to explain how alignment works and how leaders and HRD experts can use it to improve performance.

The nine components of the alignment model represent all major elements of the org anization involved in the link between alignment and organizational performance (see Figure 1, the Alignment Model). Each element has a profound effect on the next element in line. The two are aligned when the downstream element is closely linked to the requirements of its upstream partner or partners. While each element has some sort of feedback loop and connection to the other elements, the overall direction of this ideal alignment flow is one-way through the diagram. An organization gets the best performance when all of the elements in the model follow the ideal flow. These elements are listed below:

Figure 1. The Alignment Model. The model shows the elements that make up the whole picture of alignment and the ideal flow of information through which each is aligned to produce performance.

Environment describes the context within which the organization operates. It provides opportunities and constraints that influence the organization's freedom of action and definition of successful performance. This element includes information about competitors, customer needs and expectations, and the broader environmental context.

Vision, values, & purpose describes the object of alignment. Others refer to this as as the *main thing* (Labovitz and Rosansky, 1997), the *mission and vision* (Tosti and Jackson, 1994), the *vision* (Collins & Porras, 1996), the *strategic goal* (Kotter & Heskett, 1992), or the *strategy* (Nadler & Tushman, 1989). Whatever an organization chooses to call the object of its energies, it is the thing that calibrates the scale of alignment. It includes the permanent core values and purpose of the organization that make up its ideology. It also includes the long term visionary goal or aspiration that provides the direction to which all systems, structures, practices, rewards, and behavior should be aligned.

Strategy is the process of creating and communicating goals that are intended to place the organization in an advantageous position or configuration within its environment. Strategy properly includes vision, plans, and communication at all levels of the organization.

Culture refers to the set of assumptions within the organization about what brings success for individuals and the organization as a whole. These are shared, in greater or lesser part, by the majority of the members of the organization. The culture transmits the values, ideology, and assumptions to new members and maintains a sense of continuity over time.

Structure & Systems represent the observable artifacts of the organization that move or transform resources (information, matter, and energy) to produce desired outputs. This element includes organizational structure, the design of business processes, and the design of information and learning processes.

Rewards comprise the process for attending to and incenting organizational behavior. The variable includes formal and informal mechanisms such as pay and benefits scales, incentive programs, promotion and disciplinary systems, feedback, assignment choices, and interpersonal attention.

Practices represent the assumptions and priorities of the culture in action. The practices of the organization are habitual patterns of attention and action –the way the culture is enacted on a day to day basis.

Behavior is the observable activity of people within the organizational system. Any given behavior is directed toward one or more goals of the individual, which may or may not contribute or be intended to contribute to achievement of the strategic goals.

Performance is the collective output of individual and group behavior in the organization as facilitated by the capability of organizational systems.

The alignment model shows the ideal flow from one element of the organization to the next. The environment shapes the organization's vision, values, and purpose. Vision, values, and purpose drive strategy and culture. Strategy drives systems and structure and rewards. Culture drives rewards and practices. Systems and structure, rewards, and practices drive behavior. Finally, the collective behavior becomes organizational performance.

Each arrow between elements of the model also represents a different set of alignment indicators that people can observe. For example, between *environment* and *strategy*, one specific indicator might be the degree to which the organization includes specific information about its customers in its strategic goals. There are many different behaviors that could indicate alignment or misalignment between each pair of elements. These behaviors were the basis for the SAQ items.

Statement of the Problem

Part of the difficulty of working with organizational alignment is that there has been no easy way to measure it. The best and most reliable way to measure alignment has been to use a carefully trained and prepared team of external assessors to examine the organization's processes, systems, and work artifacts (NIST, 1994). This method, used in the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award process, consumes more than 3,200 person-hours of work and requires a high level of expertise that may not be available or economical to the organization. I developed a survey-based measurement instrument as part of my work with organizational alignment theory. This study sought evidence of how well the results reported by this new instrument would compare to those of a qualitative expert assessment, albeit one less rigorous than the Baldrige Quality Award process. The findings of the research would also offer some evidence upon which to evaluate the construct validity of the underlying alignment theory.

The research questions include the following: To what extent do the Semler Alignment Questionnaire (SAQ) results correspond with experts' qualitative assessments of alignment? How well can the SAQ items and instructions identify strengths and weaknesses of alignment in different kinds of organizations? Additionally, an understanding of strong and weak states of alignment in the different theoretical dimensions could improve our understanding of alignment. What do these strengths and weaknesses look like; how might we describe them?

Method

The study administered the SAQ to two organizations and made a qualitative comparison of the questionnaire results with expert judgments of alignment for the same organizations, using the same theoretical basis. Obtaining validation evidence for the Questionnaire was the principal interest of the study. The researcher employed expert judgment as a triangulation technique and a way to obtain narrative examples of conditions that would provide confirming or refuting evidence of the SAQ's ability to accurately measure alignment in organizations.

Subject organizations were selected for convenience and diversity of industry. The researcher had previously established a relationship with internal human resource development (HRD) experts in each organization and offered them the opportunity to participate in the study. Four organizations were originally invited to participate. Two were able to complete the study in time for publication of this paper. The others were still in the research process at press time. The study included an international human resources consulting firm, a government services organization in the United Kingdom, a secure data processing services company, and an industrial controls manufacturing firm. For this paper, the consulting firm is referred to as Organization 1. The government services organization is Organization 2.

The researcher and the internal HRD expert initially invited twenty-five respondents from a pool of managers, cross-functional team leaders, and human resource professionals to complete the SAQ. People in these positions were deemed most likely to have sufficient knowledge of both organizational strategy and front line work practices to complete the questionnaire. Employees at lower levels in the organization could probably provide more diagnostic data about alignment, but could not reasonably be expected to have knowledge about the organizational strategy that would allow them to be able to complete the SAQ in its current form. The Questionnaire included items such as those in Table 1.

Respondents were selected using three principles: (1) strive for a group that accurately represents the organization, (2) invite those who are most likely to be able to provide accurate information to respond, and (3) select at random to the greatest extent possible. Consultation with a statistics expert and experience with similar multi-rater instruments suggested that representativeness of the sample, and not any particular number of responses, was key to obtaining valid response data.

Table 1 – Sample SAQ Items by Dimension

Strategic Alignment
1. My organization clearly addresses competitive threats and opportunities in its strategic goals. 4. My organization clearly links its strategic goals to specific customer needs or expectations. 8. My organization creates divisional and departmental goals to adapt to changes in the business environment.
Vision, Values, and Purpose Alignment
11. My organization clearly links its strategic goals to our long-term vision of where we want to be in the future. 14. My organization clearly communicates its strategic goals to everyone in the organization. 17. My organization develops plans that encourage people to put the organization's core values into action.
Reward Systems Alignment - Strategic Focus
21. My organization clearly links routine performance measures to its strategic goals. 23. My organization gives informal rewards and recognition (for example, praise, special opportunities, positive feedback, choice of assignments) to people who make important contributions to our strategic goals. 24. My organization uses a clear and consistent system of rewards and consequences that encourages people to work at their best.
Structure & Systems Alignment
28. My organization uses key business processes that clearly support our strategic goals. 31. My organization uses an organizational structure that allows coordination across unit boundaries, when necessary to achieve strategic goals. 32. My organization clearly communicates how each job and work process contributes to our strategic goals.
Reward Systems Alignment - Cultural Focus
35. My organization promotes and compensates people fairly and consistently. 36. My organization gives choices of work assignments or projects fairly and consistently. 39. My organization recognizes when people do a good job.
Organizational Practices Alignment
42. My organization's leaders do what they say they will do. 43. My organization's leaders have excellent credibility. 45. My organization's way of getting things done is efficient.

After distributing the questionnaires to the respondent pool, the researcher or his internal HRD partner identified three or four internal business experts from each organization. These experts were senior executives and HRD consultants who were recognized as experts on their organization's strategy and operations. The researcher or his HRD partner then interviewed these experts. In each session, the interviewer explained the alignment model and asked the experts to describe their organizations' systems and practices in each of the dimensions of alignment, independently covering the same topics as the SAQ. The researcher encouraged the experts to rate their organizations in each dimension as strong, weak, or mixed and to critically examine their organizations' strategy, culture, systems, rewards, and practices from the perspective of the alignment model.

The researcher then presented and helped the experts interpret their organizations' SAQ results. After the experts felt they understood the results, the researcher asked them to share their reactions and comments on the accuracy of the feedback. In addition to capturing these summarized comments, the experts also rated the accuracy of the questionnaire results for each item with a survey (Lawshe, 1975; Pucel, Cerrito, & Noe, 1989).

Results

In content validation work with the Semler Alignment Questionnaire, all items on the Questionnaire were rated as essential or helpful by eight out of nine expert reviewers, producing a content validity index (CVI) of .78 or higher for each item and dimension. This satisfies the t-test recommended by Lawshe (1975) at the .05 level.

The characteristics of those who completed the SAQ and those who did not were similar in most respects. The researcher and HRD partner judged the final samples to be adequately representative for both organizations (Org. 1

n=11; Org. 2 n=16). One flaw in the sample was that only US-based employees responded to the SAQ in Organization 1, where international employees from that organization were also invited to respond.

Item ratings for the SAQ were on a five point scale ("1=we do not do this at all" to "5=we do this to a very great extent"). Items were rated individually by each respondent, with means and standard deviations reported. Accuracy ratings supplied by internal experts were on a four point scale ("1=not at all accurate" to "4=very accurate"). Each expert evaluated the accuracy of the respondents' mean ratings for each item. These ratings appear at the dimension level in Table 2.

Table 2 – SAQ Ratings and Expert-Reported Accuracy

	Organization 1			Organization 2		
Alignment Dimension	**Mean**	**SD**	**Accuracy**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Accuracy**
Strategic Alignment	3.03	1.09	3.22	2.93	0.80	2.58
Vision, Values, and Purpose Alignment	2.98	1.00	3.36	2.99	0.83	2.77
Reward Systems Alignment - Strategic Focus	2.61	0.83	3.50	2.33	0.80	3.42
Structure & Systems Alignment	2.66	0.81	3.43	2.86	0.82	3.07
Reward Systems Alignment - Cultural Focus	3.11	0.87	3.43	2.62	0.72	3.00
Organizational Practices Alignment	2.80	0.91	3.75	2.56	0.70	3.28

The SAQ respondents independently identified the same strengths and weaknesses of alignment that the internal experts did. The internal experts reported in the interviews that the results of the questionnaire were at least fairly accurate. The experts of Organization 1 reported higher accuracy, finding no surprises at all from the SAQ results. Internal experts from Organization 2 expressed more disagreement with the specific SAQ ratings, but agreed with the same areas of strength and weakness as did the questionnaire respondents. The specific accuracy ratings varied by organization and dimension, and the experts suggested that some of the people who responded to the Questionnaire may have different perspectives and amounts of knowledge about the strategy of the organization and operating unit, thus affecting their ability to respond to questions. Table 3 presents the experts' assessments of strengths and weaknesses by dimension with the corresponding SAQ means.

Table 3 – Comparison of Experts' Assessments with SAQ Results

	Organization 1		Organization 2	
Alignment Dimension	**Expert Assessment**	**SAQ Means**	**Expert Assessment**	**SAQ Means**
Strategic Alignment	+	3.03	+	2.93
Vision, Values, Purpose Alignment	0	2.98	+	2.99
Reward Systems Alignment - Strategic	–	2.61	–	2.33
Structure & Systems Alignment	–	2.66	0	2.86
Reward Systems Alignment - Cultural	+	3.11	–	2.62
Organizational Practices Alignment	0	2.80	0	2.56

Legend:
+ Experts report stronger alignment.
– Experts report misalignment or weaker alignment.
0 Experts describe mixed or neutral alignment.

Means and standard deviations were reported by questionnaire item in the SAQ report. The results were presented first by dimension, with the Top 10 and Bottom 10 rated items and themes following. Generally, the lower an item was rated by SAQ respondents, the lower the standard deviation reported. This effect held across both organizational samples under an analysis of variance by quartile ($F=3.92$, $p=.011$). This effect has even greater significance when analyzed by Top 10, Middle 28, and Bottom 10 items, as opposed to quartiles ($F=8.06$, $p=.0006$).

Narrative Examples

These are some general examples of strong and weak alignment practics and characteristics in each alignment dimension, as related by the organizations' internal experts.

Strategic Alignment – Dimension 1 . This dimension was described to study participants as "*Linking vision and strategy with the business environment.*" Both organizations described a strength of alignment as understanding the customer, and communicating with the customer about current and future needs. However, having customer information did not necessarily equate with the ability to act on that information. Organization 1, a pioneer in several technologies, had long recognized the potential for customers to switch to lower cost suppliers, but missed several opportunities to address this competitive threat. Organization 2 identified customer consultation practices (roadshows and user groups, for example) as effective ways to align new and existing product groups with customer needs and expectations.

Vision, Values, & Purpose Alignment – Dimension 2 . This dimension was described to study participants as "*Setting strategy to live the values and achieve the organization's vision and purpose.* " Organization 1 reported that it had been following a strategy for years that it could not articulate or explain. This organization had, however, been able to deploy its strategy through its values and culture. Its experts attributed a number of missed competitive opportunities to their difficulty in articulating the strategy. They also acknowledged that the strategy enhanced innovation, but did not provide a clear, common vision or direction. Organization 2 reported that it had strengths in planning and linking plans to strategy and core values. This organization also emphasized "cascading" organizational goals down to individual employee objectives. Despite this practice, the experts interviewed felt that lower grades often "miss" the link between goals and strategy.

Rewards Alignment-Strategic Focus – Dimension 3 . This dimension was described to study participants as "*Maintaining reward systems and consequences that support the strategy.*" Both organizations cited this dimension as a weak area. Both lacked clear or "transparent" systems that were consistently applied or explained to employees, and experienced employee dissatisfaction as a result. Organization 1 experts stated that the organization had almost certainly lost talent as a result of inconsistent perceptions of fairness. Neither organization had measurement systems in place to link indicators of strategic performance with individual or team performance and rewards. Organization 2 cited extra work given to top performers as "a disincentive to go the extra mile." Both organizations also reported that they had few consequences for poor performance, and seldom took consistent action to address performance problems.

Structure & Systems Alignment – Dimension 4 . This dimension was described to study participants as "*Linking the organization's structure and systems with strategic goals.*" Organization 1 experts acknowledged the opportunity to get more systematic about strategy and key business systems. They cited the need for key business processes to operate smoothly in the background as an improvement issue for their organization. They recognized that the chief executive's personal leadership was not enough to provide direction for the entire organization like it once was. "It's harder to steer a bigger boat. We can't just make lots of flexible course corrections to respond to opportunities. We have to plan our opportunities farther in advance." Organization 2 reported that it was "breaking out of silo working" and moving toward more matrix management to address cross-boundary needs. These experts cited the flexibility of team-based working as a potential remedy to the legacy of their hierarchical structure.

Rewards Alignment-Cultural Focus – Dimension 5 . This dimension was described to study participants as "*Guiding people's efforts with appropriate rewards and encouragement.*" Both organizations cited the ability to get people into jobs they enjoy as an effective practice. Organization 1 noted its strong culture of informal rewards and recognition based upon performance as a strength. This organization rewards loyalty and dedicated service with informal praise, recognition, and challenging work assignments. The informal nature of the rewards leads to unreliable perceptions of fairness, however. The experts interviewed saw the team-based incentives of their organization as an excellent practice, with the expectations and rewards both transparent and motivating. Organization 2 had more of a traditional reward culture, with limited reward or recognition opportunities. These experts noted that there were few team-based rewards, little public recognition, and not enough private "thank you's." They also felt that there was not enough financial reward for those who valued pecuniary incentives.

Organizational Practices Alignment – Dimension 6 . This dimension was described to study participants as "*Walking the Talk - following through with action on what leaders say is important.*" This dimension covers two different concepts, key leaders' actions and effective work practices, and this dichotomy appeared in both the SAQ results and the interviews. Organization 1 experts rated the availability, consistency, and openness of leaders as a strength. They felt that there was much room for improvement in the efficiency and effectiveness of the organizational practices and priorities. This was an area of some discrepancy between SAQ respondents and experts in Organization 2. The internal experts rated leader credibility much higher than the SAQ sample did, giving more credit to executive leadership for "improving— more walking the talk" than the respondents in the field. Despite this extra credit, they acknowledged the lack of consistency of leaders. While "there are some pockets

of good practice," leaders they often "talk a good game, but rarely deliver when under pressure." They also recognized that leaders have less credibility than employees want and expect.

Discussion

The results offer ample initial evidence for face validity, content validity, and inter-method reliability of the Semler Alignment Questionnaire. The data also provide some confirming evidence for the construct validity of the theory upon which the SAQ is based.

Agreement of the SAQ and Internal Experts

In the instrument development process, the senior HRD practitioners and researchers that formed the expert review panel gave high face and content validity ratings to the SAQ. The internal experts in this study verified the face validity of the questionnaire and its results.

The degree of agreement between the qualitative assessment of alignment provided by the internal experts and the quantitative results of the SAQ is very satisfactory. The SAQ was able to match the experts' rank ordering of dimensions, and was also able to accurately point out the specific strengths and weaknesses identified by the experts' narrative examples.

The researcher's initial benchmark for the accuracy ratings was set at 2.50 or higher (the mean) on a four point scale. This would reflect a score between 2 ("somewhat accurate") and 3 ("mostly accurate"). The experts in both organizations rated the mean accuracy of all six alignment dimension results at 2.5 or higher and rated all but six individual items at 2.5 or higher. This is a very satisfactory result for an initial test of a new theory-based measurement instrument.

The SAQ performed similarly in two different organizations, one a profit-driven high-technology firm, and the other a public sector government services provider. While these results are far too small to suggest generalizability (to say nothing of repeatability), they offer initial encouragement.

Pattern of Variance

The decreasing variance in the SAQ ratings between the Top 10 and Bottom 10 items is interesting. As reported for the ANOVA results, the standard deviations of SAQ scores were significantly lower for the Bottom 10 than for the Top 10. This suggests greater agreement on items of misalignment (the Bottom 10) than on items of strong alignment (the Top 10). This finding offers support for the practical observation that it is easier to agree on which things are out of alignment than on which things are strongly aligned. This may be because difficulties and barriers come more easily to mind than things which one has little cause to notice; an example of the availability heuristic in action.

SAQ Issues

The definitions of "leaders," "organization," and "environment" prompted questions from some SAQ respondents. Some respondents viewed their immediate superiors as leaders, others saw only the executive group as leaders. Similarly, they reported some confusion about whether "organization" was intended to mean their site or the whole enterprise. As expected, some respondents asked questions or reported difficulty when asked to rate the entire organization, commenting that they did not know enough about the rest of the organization outside of their particular unit, department, or site. The use of the generic term "environment" may be too vague for some respondents, allowing people to take different views of the scope of the organization's operating environment. This is especially true for respondents in the public sector organization, who had difficulty responding to questions about the competition or competitive threats. No other difficulties with the terminology or language of the SAQ were reported.

The method used to obtain responses to the SAQ has certain strengths and weaknesses. The sample selection method relied upon the judgment of a researcher and HRD partner, and was not a statistically random sample. This forces us to use caution when applying statistical methods to analyze the data. When used for diagnostic purposes, however, this limitation is not as important as the need to solicit a balanced, representative set of respondents who can provide multiple perspectives of alignment.

Summary

The initial implication of this study is that HRD practitioners have a practical diagnostic tool to assess strong and weak areas of organizational alignment. While the SAQ is far from perfect, it offers the first theory-based method of measuring alignment in a survey instrument. Further studies and use in the field should provide additional evidence of the SAQ's capabilities and limitations.

The finding that there is greater agreement on lower rated items than higher rated items may offer tips for practice. If this finding applies to other organizations, the recommended HRD practice of assessing needs by "looking for the pain" may be more accurate and practical than studying both strengths and weaknesses where resources are limited.

Any measurement instrument can only provide a single slice of data about organizational behavior and performance. A complete assessment is obtained by combining several different perspectives, including instruments, observation, and involvement of the stakeholders. The best use of an instrument is to prompt a discussion of the results. When the participants have confidence in the instrument, such discussions can focus on the meanings of the results and their implications for the organization. This dialogue is where the HRD practitioner can add the most value, and can use the SAQ results as a jumping off point for a thorough assessment of the organization's performance needs. This dialogue is also the best place to begin prioritizing issues and searching for solutions. In this way, the SAQ can provide another diagnostic tool for the HRD practitioner to lead performance improvement work for the organization.

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Vertical Integration of HRD Policy within Companies.

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This study concerns HRD policymaking in companies. More specifically it explores whether so-called vertical integration of HRD policy at different organizational levels occurs within companies. Findings indicate a virtual absence of HRD policymaking or strategic HRD aligning, in all aspects and levels within the companies studied. It is thus problematical to harmonize HRD policy processes in a vertical direction.

Keywords: HRD Policy, Policy Integration, Policy Harmonization

The survey reported here is part of the Strategic Human Resource Development (HRD) project in which the effects of strategic HRD are studied within companies. Strategic HRD refers to the planned learning and development of individual and groups of employees for the benefit of the company as well as themselves (e.g. Garavan, Costine and Heraty, 1995). Central to this is that HRD programs have to be aligned to the company concerned. HRD policymaking is the process in which strategic choices are made concerning these targeted programs and other learning activites. It is an interactive process whereby as part of ongoing and future company policy, appropriate HRD goals and objectives are formulated regarding employees' and company development (Wognum, 1999). Theoretically, optimal HRD policymaking should take place at strategic, tactical, and operational levels within organizations, with relevant stakeholders involved at every level. Theories based on the systems approach often plead for a harmonization of HRD policy at various levels of the organization (Gilbert, 1978; Van de Ven & Drazin, 1985; Banathy, 1991; Romiszowski, 1984; Rummler & Brache, 1990; Swanson, 1994). When this does not happen, it is highly likely that HRD programs will be ineffective. It is therefore interesting to explore whether vertical integration of HRD policy at different organizational levels actually occurs within companies.

Theoretical Framework

Organizational problems and development and their related training needs may occur at the strategic, tactical and operational levels of the organization (Figure 1). Optimal HRD policymaking (Figure 1) should take place at these three levels (Rothwell & Kazenas, 1989) in order to align HRD programs strategically to the company concerned. HRD policymaking, therefore, includes information gathering and identification of potential HRD needs at each company level in cooperation with the relevant stakeholders. These needs relate to performance levels and business results stakeholders are striving towards. HRD policymaking at the *strategic level,* with a company's top management as primary stakeholder, includes analyzing corporate mission, strategy, problems, developments and other issues which, at this level, may serve as starting point for HRD processes. HRD policymaking at the *tactical* level, with middle managers as primary stakeholders, includes analyzing problems and development around the coordination and cooperation between organizational departments which may call for HRD interventions. HRD policymaking at operational level, with lower executive management and other employees in the operating core as primary stakeholders, includes identifying performance problems of individual workers and operational departments (Tjepkema & Wognum, 1999). HRD policymaking at these three levels is thus an interactive process whereby as part of an ongoing and future company policy, appropriate HRD goals and objectives are formulated concerning targeted programs and other learning activites so that employees acquire the competencies necessary to improve performance and organizational effectiveness.(Torraco, 1995).

The HRD function, which is usually in the form of an HRD department, also comprises three levels: HRD policymaking at strategic level; HRD administration at tactical level; and HRD implementation at operational level (Figure 1). HRD policymaking is already described in the above section. HRD administration concerns the process of creating favorable conditions for implementing the stated goals and objectives. It includes the allocation of HRD staff, budgets and other resources. HRD implementation concerns the effective implementation of learning processes

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and includes decisions on specific HRD activities like selecting employees to be trained or educated, time schedules and other detailed arrangements.

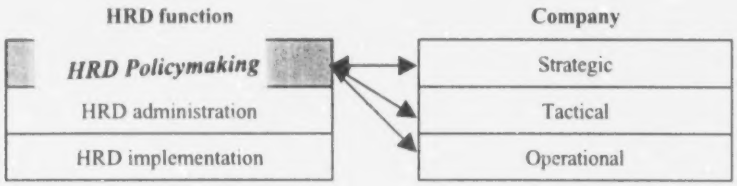

Figure *1: Levels in HRD policymaking*

Strategic Partnership and Vertical Integration

By means of the lines between HRD policymaking and the three company levels (see Figure 1) it is envisaged that optimal HRD policymaking takes place at strategic, tactical, and operational levels within the organization. Cooperation between allthose involved - top, middle and lower executive management, employees in the operating core, and HRD company representatives - is necessary in order to arrive at strategically aligned HRD programs and other learning interventions. This so-called 'strategic partnership' (Kaufman, 1986; Robinson & Robinson, 1989) leads to more commitment, and a positive attitude of stakeholders towards training and development.

Though often worded in different ways, virtually all systems theorists opt for mutual tuning and harmonization between decisionmaking at strategic, tactical and operational levels (Gilbert, 1978; Van de Ven & Drazin, 1985; Banathy, 1991; Romiszowski, 1984; Rummler & Brache, 1990; Swanson, 1994). Decisionmaking at strategic level has to be translated into tactical and operational levels (and vice versa) in order to achieve an integrated and coherent HRD company policy. Because of the more or less hierarchical levels, this harmonization between strategic, tactical and operational policy processes is called 'vertical integration of HRD policy'. When this integration does not take place, it is highly likely that HRD programs will be ineffective (cf. Van de Ven & Drazin, 1985). Earlier empirical reserach has established that a true integration of policy processes at these levels is extremely limited within companies (Mulder, Akkerman & Bentvelsen, 1989; Wognum, 1998). It is therefore interesting to explore further whether this so-called vertical integration of HRD policy at different organizational levels occurs within companies.

HRD Policymaking and Strategic HRD Aligning

In policymaking practices all kinds of accidental and unplanned working procedures take place, which al so determine the way policymaking processes occur (Mintzberg, 1994). In order to study the vertical integration of HRD policy processes in companies, this study therefore departs from the actual performed HRD policymaking processes, identified by the term 'strategic HRD aligning'. The word 'strategic' emphasizes the company perspective and connects the link between HRD and organizational goals and objectives. Strategic aligning thus concerns the development of HRD goals and objectives and HRD interventions which are aligned with company strategy, problems, and developments at all company levels. The aligning process consists of three stages: 1. Identifying organizational strategies, problems and developments at all company levels; 2. Examining these in relation to possible HRD implications; 3. Making strategic choices about the way in which strategies, problems and developments can be supported by HRD programs and other learning activities. Based on the foregoing and also on features of decisionmaking models (Koopman & Pool, 1992; Van Heffen, 1993), strategic HRD aligning is characterized by four aspects: participation, information, formalization, and decisionmaking. *Participation* means the involvement of participants, the so-called HRD stakeholders, at various company levels in the aligning process. *Information* refers to the data needed to gain more insight into the problem and related HRD needs. Data from various organizational levels are needed to decide which HRD goals and objectives are important in order to align HRD programs to the company. *Formalization* refers to the formal consultative structure and information gathering procedures of the aligning process. *Decision-making* is about making choices regarding the supporting of problems and developments in the company by HRD programs and other learning interventions. It is concerned with

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determining the appropriate HRD goals and objectives at various organizational levels, target groups and content of HRD programs and other learning interventions.

Research Question

In this study an important question is whether optimal HRD policymaking at strategic, tactical, and operational level of an organization has taken place. The study focuses specifically on the harmonization of HRD policy at these company levels - the so-called vertical integration of HRD policy. The main research question is then: *to what extent will vertical integration of HRD policy in companies occur?* Because this study departs from actual performed HRD policymaking processes, the main focus is on the vertical integration of strategic HRD aligning.

Methods

The survey reported here was carried out as part of a larger one among Dutch companies. Large companies (more than 500 employees) from the industrial sector and the financial and commercial services sector were selected from a national database from the Association of Chambers of Commerce. Research has shown that in absolute terms the greatest effort in HRD programmes is made in companies of this size and within these specific sectors (Mulder, Akkerman & Bentvelsen, 1989). The present study started from a group of 44 companies already studied earlier in the main research project (Wognum, 1999). A non-response analysis showed no significant differences between the non-response group and the 44 companies in the study concerning certain contextual variables such as size and structure of the company and structure and position of the HRD function.

Sample. In order to answer the research question, a survey was carried out among 44 Dutch companies with more then 500 employees in two economic sectors (11 from the industrial sector and 33 from the financial and commercial services sector). In each of these organizations one HRD program was selected from two frequently recurring areas of HRD activities, namely automation and social skills. These areas were selected for two reasons. Firstly, both types of HRD program were offered in the 44 companies. Secondly, earlier research findings indicate some differences in the level of contentment of employees with the aligning procedures. In companies where social skills programs were offered respondents were more discontented about the aligning procedure than in companies that did not give this kind of training. No significant differences were found in the case of automation programs (Wognum, 1998). The selection process resulted in 23 automation and 21 social skills programs. Four categories of respondents were selected: the HRD company representative, a maximum of 15 HRD participants in the selected programs, their supervising manager and (if present) their subordinates. All groups can be considered as having an interest in HRD policymaking in companies (the so-called groups of stakeholders).

Data collection. Data were collected in the spring and summer of 1997 using a questionnaire sent to 767 representatives of the four groups of stakeholders (44 HRD company representatives, 357 HRD participants, 242 of their supervising managers and 124 of their subordinates). The questionnaire was designed to collect information on the aforementioned process of strategic HRD aligning, and comprised mainly precoded questions with some open answers intended for additionel comments. Questions concerned respondents' participation in the aligning process, information they had provided (ten categories were identified, including company's strategy and performance results, operating procedures of the unit or department the respondents worked for, and respondents' knowledge, skills and attitudes), the consultative structures and information gathering procedures applied (including formal as well as informal meetings, projects, and evaluation procedures), and the kind and level of determined HRD goals and objectives (including respondents' knowledge, skills, attitudes, working behavior, and performance results at the operational level, the performance results of their unit or department at tactical level, and the performance results of the entire company at strategic level).

Response. 752 questionnaires were sent to the automation group (23 HRD company representatives, 320 trainees, 277 managers, and 132 subordinates). All 23 HRD company representatives completed the questionnaire, while 54% of trainees, 43% of managers, and 29% of subordinates responded. 740 questionnaires were sent to the social skills' group (21 HRD company representatives, 292 trainees, 251 managers, and 176 subordinates). All HRD representatives completed the questionnaire, while 63% of trainees, 49% of managers, 49% of subordinates responded. The final group of respondents in this study had a sample size of 44 HRD company representatives, 357 HRD participants, 242 supervising managers and 124 subordinates.

Analysis. The two-staged sampling design used (first a sample of companies, then a sample of respondents within each company) resulted in a hierarchical, nested data structure. To arrive at answers to the research question, therefore, not only descriptive statistics but also multilevel analysis was used. Multilevel statistical models (cf.

Goldstein, Rasbach, Plewis, et all, 1998) are suitable for handling data with such a hierarchical structure. These models allowed us to make statistical inferences both at individual respondent (sample size 767) and company size (sample size 44) levels. It shouls also be noticed that multilevel analysis includes the estimation of expected means.

Results

Strategic aligning concerns the development of HRD goals and objectives and HRD interventions, which are aligned with company strategy, problems, and developments at all company levels. As was described before, it represents the actual performed HRD policymaking process within the companies studied, and is characterized by four aspects; participation, information, formalization and decision-making.

Participation

From the data in Tabel 2 it may be concluded that the four groups of respondents were involved, on average, in less than one of two stages of the aligning process. The first stage of identifying organizational strategies, problems and developments at all company levels was not involved in the analysis since this was not required of three of the four respondent groups. Supervising managers were the most involved participants (M=.99), while subordinates were the least involved (M=.26). Three groups of respondents, however, attached great interest to their participation in aligning processes (HRD representatives were not questioned in this perspective). The mean score of HRD participants on a five-point scale is 3.87 (SD=.86), supervising managers 4.01 (SD=.69), and subordinates 3.59 (SD=.93) (Table 1).

Table 1: *Means and standard deviations per group of respondents concerning the importance attached to participation and the providing of information in strategic HRD aligning*

	P[a]		M[b]		S[c]	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
importance of participartion[d]	3.87	.86	4.01	.69	3.59	.93
importance of provinding information[d]	3.84	.86	4.03	.72	3.63	.92

a) P: Participant of HRD programs (N=357)
b) M: Supervising manager of HRD participant (N=242)
c) S: Subordinate of HRD participant (N=124)
d) Scale running from 1 (totally unimportant) to 5 (very important)

Information

This aspect of the aligning process concerns the information needed to gain more insight into the problem and related HRD needs. The data presented in Table 2 indicate that HRD participants, their supervising managers and subordinates attach great interest to providing information (HRD representatives were not questioned in this perspective). The mean scoreof HRD participants on a five-point scale is 3.84 (SD=.86), supervising managers 4.03 (SD=.7269), and subordinates 3.63 (SD=.92) (Table 1). It turned out, however, that their interests are insufficiently converted into a real provision of information. With the exception of HRD representatives, respondents provided information, on average, on less than one information category out of ten, concerning less than one of the three distinguished policy levels (see Table 2). Table 3 visualizes that this has to be the operational level, where 81.8 % of HRD company representatives, 23% of HRD participants, 28.2% of their supervising managers, and 4.0% of their subordinates provided information mainly on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the participants in the selected HRD programs

Table 2: *Strategic HRD aligning in companies: means per group of respondent, and level of agreement between groups of respondents and between respondents within companies*

	N	P[a)]	M[b)]	S[c)]	H[d)]	agreement within companies
number of stages in which was participated (maximum=2)	767	.62	.99**	.26**	.64	.15
number of categories of provided information (maximum=10)	767	.58	.88**	.25**	4.13**	.09
number of policy levels of provided information (maximum=3)	767	.45	.67**	.18**	2.30**	.08
number of consultative structures in which involved (maximum=4)	767	.50	.66**	.35**	1.30**	.07
number of information gathering procedures applied (maximum=7)	723	.63	.88**	.34**	x	.10
number of types of HRD goals and objectives formulated (maximum=6)	767	1.01	1.18**	.92	1.77**	.02
number of policy levels of HRD goals and objectives formulated (max=3)	767	.89	1.01**	.80*	1.11**	.03
number of aligning aspects (maximum= 4)	767	2.06	2.64**	1.54**	3.34**	.14
number of aligning levels (maximum=3)	767	.79	.94**	.62*	1.73**	.08

a P: Participant of HRD programs (N=357)
b: M: Supervising manager of HRD participant (N=242)
c: S: Subordinate of HRD participant (N=124)
d: H: HRD company representative (N=44)
*) significant difference with the HRD participants as group of respondents, at 10% level (2-tailed)
**) significant difference with the HRD participants as group of respondents, at 5% level (2-tailed)
x) not applicable

Formalization

Formalization refers to the formal consultative structure and information gathering procedures of the aligning proces. Scant participation in formal or informal consultative structures was found and minor use made of information gathering procedures. The data in Table 2 indicate that HRD specialists, on average, participated in 1.30 of 4 consultative structures (formal and regular meetings as well as temporary or informal or other kind of consultative structures). The scores for the other groups of respondents are even lower (.50 on average for HRD participants, .66 for supervising managers, and .35 for subordinates). It also turned out that, on average, less than one of the seven procedures of information gathering (i.e. tests and other evaluation procedures, environmental scanning, analysis of documents like policy plans, and more informal ways of information gathering) were utilized by groups of respondents.

Table 3: *Percentages per respondent group of providing information per policy level*

org. level of providing information	H[a)]	P[b)]	M[c)]	S[d)]
strategic	79,5	6.4	18.2	3.2
tactical	68,2	16.5	19.1	13.7
operational	81.8	23.0	28.2	4.0

a) H: HRD company representative (N=44)
b) P: Participant of HRD programs (N=357)
c) M: Supervising manager of HRD participant (N=242)
d) S: Subordinate of HRD participant (N=124)

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Decisionmaking

Decisionmaking is about making choices regarding the supporting of problems and developments in the company by using HRD programs and other learning interventions. This survey focused on the HRD goals and objectives of the selected HRD programs in the areas of automation and social skills. It proved that, on average, HRD goals and objective were formulated at one out of three company levels (M=1.11 for HRD company representatives, M=1.01 for supervising managers, M=.89 for HRD participants, and .80 for the subordinates). It mainly concerns the operational level including the learning goals, working behavior and performance results of individual employees. Data in Table 4 indicate that more than 70% of HRD specialists, 68% of HRD participants, 66% of supervising managers, and 54% of subordinates point to the formulation of goals at this operational level, concerning the knowledge, skills and attitudes of individual employees. The percentages of the other operational level goals are considerably lower. There are hardly any goals formulated at strategic and tactical company levels.

Table 4: *Percentages of respondents for decisionmaking in strategic HRD aligning (multiple response)*

goals and objectives to achieve	H[a)]	P[b)]	M[c)]	S[d)]
no specific goals and objectives	11,4	9,2	2,9	6,3
at strategic level				
performance results of the company some time after end of program	6,8	3,8	7,1	5,3
at tactical level				
performance results of the department some time after end of program	18,2	12,4	15,1	20,4
at operational level				
knowledge, skills and atitudes at the end of the program	70,5	67,9	66,4	54,0
working behavior at the end of the program	47,7	6,6	13,0	7,1
performance results of individual employees	27,3	7,8	13,9	5,3
other				
other kind of goals and objectives	6,8	5,8	4,6	9,7

a) H: HRD company representative (N=44)
b) P: Participant of HRD programs (N=346)
c) M: Supervising manager of HRD participant (N=238)
d) S: Subordinate of HRD participant (N=113)

Strategic HRD Aligning: Aligning Aspects and Aligning Levels

So far, the results of the four separate aspects of strategic HRD aligning, participation, information, formalization, and decisionmaking, have been presented. In order to gain an overall insight into the actual HRD aligning processes within the companies studied, two new variables were constructed. The first 'aligning aspects' indicates the number of aspects in which respondents were involved. The second 'aligning levels' indicates the number of policy levels (strategic, tactical and operational) that were included into the aligning process. The findings, also represented in Table 2, indicate a virtual absence of strategic HRD aligning in all aspects and levels in the companies studied. HRD company representatives were involved in most aspects (M=3.34) and aligning levels (M=1.73), while other groups of respondentswere less involved, on average, in all aspects and levels of strategic aligning.

Strategic Partnership

In the foregoing sections many differences between the groups of respondents were found concerning their involvement in the four aspects and three levels of strategic HRD aligning. More insight into these differences is needed in order to draw a conclusion at the level of strategic partnership. Tabel 2 presents the results of the analysis indicating that the scores of supervising managers, subordinates and HRD company representatives significantly differ in many ways from those of HRD participants. Supervising managers, for instance, were involved in more stages of the aligning process, provided information on more categories and policy levels, formulated more kinds of goals and objectives than did HRD participants.

The intraclass correlation coefficient (Bryk & Raudenbusch, 1992) is used to search for the level of agreement between all four groups of respondents on all variables concerning strategic HRD aligning. If they fully agree, this coefficient is equal to 1. All variance is then explained by differences between companies. If all respondents in a company fully disagree, the coefficient is equal to zero. Variance is then explained by differences between individual respondents. Based on the data in the last column of Table 5, it may be concluded that respondents do not agree very much concerning their opinion on all items of strategic HRD aligning. This is especially the case for kind and level of HRD goals and objectives formulated (with coefficient .02 and .03 respective).

Differences Between Economic Sector and Type of HRD Program

The data in Table 6 shows that strategic HRD aligning process in the case of social skills programs significant differs from automation programs in most perspectives.

Table 6: *Differences in strategic HRD aligning for economic sector and type of HRD program*

	N	type of HRD program [a]	econ. sector [b]
number of stages in which was participated (maximum=2)	767	.36**	-.01
number of categories of provided information (maximum=10)	767	.39**	.24
number of levels of provided information (maximum=3)	767	.21**	.05
number of consultative structures involved (maximum=4)	767	.18**	.03
number of information gathering procedures applied (max=6)	723	.22**	.06
number of types of HRD goals/objectives formulated (max=6)	767	.05	.03
number of levels of HRD goals/objectives formulated (max=3)	767	-.01	.02
number of aligning aspects (maximum= 4)	767	.40**	-.08
number of aligning levels (maximum=3)	767	.16**	.08

a) difference between social skills programs compared to automation programs
b) difference between the financial and commercial services sector compared to the industrial sector
***) significant difference between social skills programs compared to automation programs at .05 level*

No significant differences between the automation and social skills programs, however, were found concerning the kind and level of HRD goals and objectives. It looks as if the aligning processes in the case of social skills programs were more intensive than those of automation programs. This, however, did not result into the formulation of more kinds of HRD goals and objectives on various policy levels. As was expected, no significant differences are found for the economic sector.

Conclusion and Discussion

In order to answer the main research question regarding the level of vertical HRD policy integration, the survey investigated how strategic HRD aligning processes had taken place within the companies studied. Results indicate that HRD participants, their supervising managers and subordinates attach great interest to contributing to aligning processes (HRD representatives were not questioned in this perspective). It turned out, however, that their interests are insufficiently converted into real contributing activities. Findings indicate that, on average, the four groups of respondents were involved in less than one of the three stages of the aligning process. With the exception of HRD representatives, they provided information on less than one information category out of ten. Also scant participation in formal and informal consultative structures was found and minor use made of information gathering procedures. In most of the companies studied, no broad aligning process at strategic, tactical and operational levels was found. The aligning process was restricted to one organizational level, on average, mostly the operational one. This means that in most cases HRD goals and objectives were formulated concerning the skills, knowledge and attitudes that participants had to master at the end of the program. In this context, no differences were found between automation and social skills programs. Both programs, however, do vary on the three other aspects of the aligning process. Generally speaking the aligning process for social skills was somewhat more intensive than for automation programs. The four groups of stakeholders varied in their contribution towards the aligning process. This is mainly the case for the kind and level of HRD goals and objectives they planned to realise with the HRD programs. This

impedes the reaching of 'strategic partnership', which is necessary for achieving strategically aligned HRD programs. It also impedes the achievement of consensus, or external consistency between all stakeholders on what the problem is, and how it will be resolved by targeted HRD programs or other learning interventions. External consistency is seen as 'the homogeneity of the notions of parties involved on what the problem is and how it can be solved by means of educational provisions' (Kessels, 1993, p. 27).

Based on the findings, the conclusion can be drawn that, in general, the HRD aligning process within the companies studied was not really strategic and hardly interactive. It is then problematical to harmonise HRD policy processes in a vertical direction. This kind of harmonization was hardly found in the companies studied. Many respondents were not involved in the aligning process. HRD participants, their supervising managers and subordinates seemed to have little idea of important data at strategic and tactical organization levels, which is needed to gain more insight into the problem and into related HRD needs. HRD goals and objectives are mainly formulated at the operational level, concerning knowledge, skills and attitudes of employees at the end of the HRD programs. Although the higher goal levels are not frequently mentioned, these goals are important to clarify the importance of the newly acquired competencies for the whole company.

The absence of vertical policy integration hinders the extent to which horizontal integration takes place. Horizontal integration means the harmonization of various kinds of policy (Leijten, 1992; Leget, 1997; Glaudé, 1997), in this case, the harmonization of HRD policies and the mission, policy and strategy of the organization as a whole. If the intended HRD goals and objectives within the organization are unclear, then it is problematical to arrive at strategically aligned HRD programs and activities. Therefore companies need to strive to involve all relevant stakeholders whenever possible and functional with the strategic HRD aligning process. The necessary information for problem solving needs to be gathered in formal and informal consultative structures at various policy levels, while different kinds of HRD goals and objectives at several policy levels should be formulated in order to achieve vertical policy integration. By focusing on these four aspects, the aligning process will result in more strategically aligned HRD programs and activities in which employees acquire the knowledge and skills needed for an organization now and in the future. Cooperation between respondents - strategic partnership - is also necessary in order to gain consensus on what the problem is and how it can be resolved. The HRD representatives need to play a key role as HRD consultants in all of this in order to support other stakeholders in the aligning process.

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Speculating About the Connection of Management Development and Organizational Goals: A Post-data Collection Interpretation.

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This paper reports a post-data collection interpretation derived from the evaluation of an international management development program. The speculations offered here emerged as themes from the data analyzed. Background information about the program evaluated is provided here to contextualize the post-data collection interpretation. Implications for the field of HRD are embedded in the discussion of each scenario that emerged from the data.

Keywords: Organizational strategy, Management development, International evaluation

In 1997, a team of performance consultants (including the author of this paper) from TSI Consulting Partners, Inc. (TSI), of Kalamazoo, Michigan, conducted the evaluation of a management development program (MDP) designed and implemented for PLAN International (a service-to-children organization that operates in developing countries) by Training Resource Group (TRG) of Alexandria Virginia, from 1993 to 1997. The management development program (MDP) was conceived of as a five-year staff development initiative to build more effective managerial capability in the field organization of PLAN international (Jordan, Levin, &Dulohery, 1996). The MDP consisted of two courses: an 8 day Management Development Course (MDC) and a follow-up 4 day Management Skills Renewal (MSR) session. As the evaluation of the MDP was conducted, TSI evaluators went after targeted examples of application of it, against PLAN's strategic objectives. The findings from the evaluation were presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Evaluation Association (AEA), November 7, 1998, in Chicago, IL (Montesino & Braatz, 1998). In the final phase of the data analysis, the author of this paper noticed the emergence of a series of scenarios that prompted the speculations reported here. As such, these tendencies are the result of purely post-facto interpretations. The purpose of this paper is to present a series of scenarios that might emerge from the evaluation of any management development program. It is not intended to discuss the pervasiveness of each of these scenarios in the context of the specific program evaluated.

Training impact has been explored in different ways in the field of human resource development (Brinkerhoff, 1987; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Phillips, 1996; and others). For the purpose of this paper, training impact is defined as the individual and business processes and performance improvements that enable increases in staff capability, as proposed by Brinkerhoff (1987), Brinkerhoff & Montesino (1995), among others. Staff performance is an interactive factor influenced not just by skills and knowledge (training outputs) but also by the work environment (opportunities to use learning, performance measures, incentives, support from supervisors, alignment with strategy and so forth), as proposed by Brinkerhoff & Gill (1994), Montesino & Sherr (1997), and others. Training alone produces only capability for performance, but it is performance (application of learning in the change of crucial work behaviors) that produces business impact. The alignment of training with the goals of the organization, then, is a powerful drive for application. The scenarios discussed here were constructed as the author looked at that connection in the context of the management development program evaluated.

The Evaluation of the Management Development Program (MDP)

The overall goals of the training evaluation conducted by TSI Consulting Partners, Inc. (TSI) were to enable PLAN International to: a) determine how effective the MDP initiative was in achieving business results for PLAN, b) establish why the training did or did not have impact for various participants, and c) determine what changes could be made to maximize the effectiveness of similar learning experiences in the future. The evaluation report is not the primary focus of this paper. The training evaluation conducted served as the source of empirical information to allow the author to speculate about the relationship between organizational goals and the management development program.

The primary evaluation method employed by the team was site visit and staff interviews, which enabled the evaluation team to identify and richly describe MDP training impact, and to understand this impact in the context of PLAN organizational goals and working conditions. To limit evaluation costs, site visits were conducted in only two of the regions

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in which PLAN operates: RESA (Region of East and Southern Africa) and SARO (South American Regional Office). These two regions were selected for site visits because more participants in these regions had completed both the MDC and MSR elements of the MDP. Thus , it was in these regions that the evaluation was most likely to uncover and gain the richest possible descriptions of potential training impact.

Four members of the evaluation team (including the author of this paper) conducted highly structured, 30-60 minute interviews with PLAN staff (MDP graduates, their managers, and those they supervise) in each site visited. A variation of the behavioral-event interview was developed as a protocol for each segment of interviewees. Interviews were conducted in English in East and Southern Africa, and translated to Spanish to be conducted in South America.

The evaluation team conducted one hundred forty-eight (148) interviews in the two regions mentioned before. Seventy-one (71) interviews were conducted in RESA (Egypt, Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe) at 18 different sites representing 12 program support units, 6 country offices and the regional office in Nairobi, Kenya. Seventy-seven (77) interviews were conducted in SARO (Paraguay, Ecuador, Colombia and Bolivia) at 13 different sites representing 10 program support units, 4 country offices and the regional office in Quito, Ecuador. Of thone hundred forty-eight (148) interviews conducted 88 were with MDP graduates, 22 with managers of the graduates, and 38 with individuals that these graduates supervise. This data collection from "above" and "below" the MDP graduates enabled the team to confirm results and provide a greater understanding of the factors that facilitated or impeded impact. Once the interviews were transcribed (those in Spanish were previously translated to English), the analysis was conducted. These 148 interviews provided the data for the interpretations presented here.

The findings from the evaluation were presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Evaluation Association (AEA), November 7, 1998, in Chicago, Illinois. These findings included items addressing the impact of MDP training, factors that influenced impact, and somegeneralizability issues as well as recommendation from the evaluation team (Montesino and Braatz, 1998). These findings are not discussed in this paper.

The Post-data Collection Interpretation

The evaluation team intended to document examples of credible, rich stories of application of the MDP rather than overburdened quantitative data. They achieved that, as reported by Montesino & Braatz (1998). The aim of this paper is the identification of a series of training-application situations that fit or do not fit the convergence of the daily work of managers/supervisors at PLAN International, PLAN's strategic goals (as contained in internal documents and communicated

Figure 1
Components of Strategic Alignment

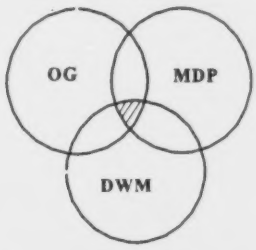
to trainers and evaluators), and the training model (MDP) designed and implemented by TRG (whose components are discussed in Jordan, Levin, & Dulohery, 1996; and expanded in Montesino & Braatz, 1998. Figure 1 shows the three important components.

Ideal scenario

If the three elementsdepicted above converge, positive results from training are realized. A full account of the results of the specific program evaluated, which fit this convergence, can be found in Montesino and Braatz, 1998. Figure 2 depicts the ideal convergence of the three important components. The convergent area represents the impact of training.

That is, the instances in which the management development program supports the daily work of managers/supervisors enabling them to contribute to attaining organizational goals. Expanding the size of the convergent area, then, becomes the aim of any management development program.

Figure 2
Ideal Convergence



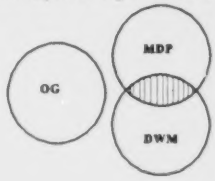
This ideal scenario represents the case in which: a) the organizational strategies are clearly defined and communicated to employees and other organizational stake holders, b) a thorough needs assessment is conducted to identify where training is needed, what needs to be done to perform effectively, and who needs training, c) the organizational goals are as stable as the market (where the organization operates) permits, and d) each training activity is clearly traced to the strategy. The convergent area of the three elements could be as big as the three circles totally overlapping or as small as the actual convergence can be in the context of the organizational reality.

Less than ideal scenarios

As the interviews from Africa and South America were analyzed, it became evident that there were specific examples of training application that fit the convergence of the MDP, the daily work of managers/supervisors, and PLAN's strategic goals. These instances constituted the majority of the findings reported by the evaluation team. However, the evaluators also uncovered several marginal training-application situations where that convergence did not occur. As the interviews were analyzed, it was evident that a very rich set of unanticipated scenarios were emerging from the qualitative data, which might be useful for future evaluations of management development programs. That is, stories of instances in which the MDP supported PLAN's strategic objectives, but the work of managers was aimed at other goals, stories of the MDP being disconnected from PLAN's goals, and stories of managers benefiting from the MDP but contributing little to the attainment of the organizational goals. Again, the presentation of the following scenarios does not intend to discuss their pervasiveness in the context of the specific program evaluated.

Figure 3 depicts the instance in which the training program (MDP) and the daily work of managers/supervisors converged, but were both far from PLAN's business objectives.

Figure 3
Little Impact on Organizational Goals



This scenario can be typified by statements from interviewees like the following:

I learned a lot in this course. Even if I don't have the chance to apply the skills I know in my current job, I will do so in my next job.

PLAN's strategic direction is a moving target, as I see it. One never knows when it is going to change. Strategies come and go and sometimes you don't even have the time to digest well the previous one

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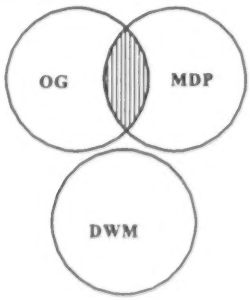
when suddenly it is changed.

I have used the instruments to assess my own managerial style and monitor how I am doing, regardless of what happens around me. At least for me, the course was good.

This setting made for some gains in terms of individual learning for future applications (which could be within their current organization or someplace else), but did not necessarily contribute to the realization of the organization's goals. It usually happens when organizational strategies are developed by top management with little or no participation from frontline employees. This exclusionary process in the strategic formulation precludes those in charge of implementation from voicing concerns about them. It also implies a top-down communication that diminishes the understanding of the strategic direction of the organization and greatly reduces the ability of in-house trainers and outside consultants to translate the strategies into tangible training needs. Lacking that understanding of the real strategic direction, trainers tend to do their best to provide a service that can produce some type of impact. The type of impact tends to be individual learning that will, in the best case, produce behavioral changes in the desired direction to support the organizational goals. In the worst case, it becomes a waste for the organization that funds the training program.

Figure 4 portrays examples in which the training program (MDP) and PLAN's business goals coincided, but the daily work of managers supervisors stayed away from them all.

Figure 4
Missed Opportunity



Typical statements related to this scenario are:

the things we learned were interesting, but that is not the way we work down here.

allowing participation of subordinates in decision-making may work well in Europe and North America, but down here things are different. My subordinates like to be told what to do.

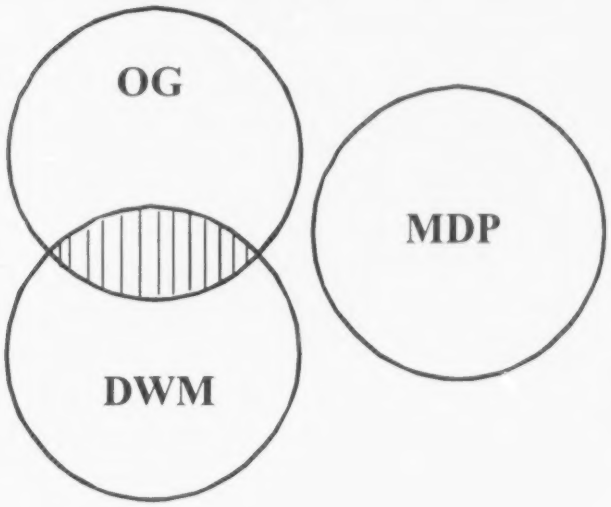
deep down, I don't believe in delegating too much as advocated in the management development program.

This scenario implies a missing opportunity for training application and the realization of the organization's strategic goals. A misunderstanding of underlying managerial values and the way people behave at work in different cultural contexts may explain this scenario. This is of particular importance for international organizations (multinational corporations, development organizations, non-governmental organizations, etc.) that have to deal with the great diversity of their workforce as they provide training.

Finally, Figure 5 exemplifies cases whereby the daily work of managers/supervisors and PLAN's strategic objectives were well aligned, but did not converge with the content of the training program (MDP).

Typical examples of this scenario include statements like these:

Figure 5
Fuzzy Strategic Priorities



my performance is evaluated in terms of how many children communicate with their respective sponsors, not by how much I empower my employees.

theoretically, we were supposed to empower our employees to empower the communities with which we work in a daily basis. None of them ever occurred in my case.

my immediate supervisor did not agree with the skills I learned. His lack of support signaled to me that other things were more important than trying to apply what I learned.

This scenario implies a failure of both the providers of training and the client in agreeing to address clearly the organization's strategic goals through the daily work of managers and supervisors, and how the management development program can help. Lack of clarity regarding the strategic goal to be achieved on the part of the client organization, and faulty needs assessment can be the typical causes of this particular scenario. Therefore, concerted effort should be made to avoid duplicity of goals as the needs assessment is conducted, and orchestrating all the human resource management subsystems to support a clearly defined strategic direction. That way, training and development efforts can be linked to the strategic goals without guesswork.

Concluding Comments

This paper contributes to new knowledge in the field of human resource development in many ways: 1) addressing the important connection that should exist between management development and organizational strategic goals; 2) the realization that this alignment/misalignment has implications for training application; 3) the realization that training impact is affected by a multiplicity of factors that are not so obvious at the time when the training program is designed.

Many unanticipated outcomes can be achieved when organizations provide training to their employees that could either benefit the organizational bottom-line or become a waste of effort, money, and time. The four (4) scenarios discussed

here provide a good idea of the variety of variables that play a role regarding training impact. Taking into account all of them provides for an ideal scenario where a training program enables managers/supervisors through their daily work to attain goals that are valued by the organization. Less than ideal scenarios can hinder training impact.

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Strategic HRD and Stakeholder-Based Evaluation: A Conceptual Framework of In-Service Training Programs in the Evinset Project

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In this paper, the authors propose the concept of strategic human resource development as a strategy for supporting a teacher's personal and professional development – including career development - as an integral part of a school's organisational development. A stakeholder-based framework for evaluation of in-service training programs is also proposed. What is essential in this framework, is that evaluation is seen as an integrated part of the organisational culture of a particular school.

Keywords: Strategic Human Resource Development, Stakeholder-Based Evaluation, In-Service Training

Evinset is a term that has been developed to describe a project on evaluation and effectiveness in European staff development and in-service training programs. The European Commission supports the project under Comenius Action 3.1 of the Socrates program. The Evinset project was designed to identify and disseminate information about the critical factors necessary for the effective development of in-service programmes across the European Community. The Evinset project includes partners from Belgium, Finland, Greece and the United Kingdom.
The project aims to improve the quality of staff development practices in schools through evaluation of quality and effectiveness of in-service training programs and institutions providing the programs. The aim is also to develop a set of practical instruments for schools' staff development officers (SDO) to help them in identifying the organisational needs in their schools, planning in-service training programs, negotiating with training providers and evaluating the impact of programs after they have been delivered. (Evinset. Screening of INSET-programmes: A preliminary checklist; The Evinset Manual)

Problem Statement

In this paper, the authors deal with the issue of evaluation of in-service training programs in the Evinset project. It is proposed that a stakeholder-based framework for evaluation is essential and that it should be an integrative part of the organizational culture of a particular school.
It has been said that schools like other organizations are in a change and the importance of highly quality teachers has been called for in many official and unofficial contexts. Given this, it follows that the role of staff development practices in schools is seen as important.

There are, however, different voices regarding what kind of teacher's role is seen as being valuable in a society. There are several discourses about teachers and the teaching profession: the teacher as a researcher, a decision maker, a practitioner, a change agent, a reflecting practitioner, a professional, and phrases like teacher empowerment and teachers and education as investments for the future. All these terms and phrases imply many assumptions and visions, as well as contradictions in teachers' work in schools and arrangements of teacher education. (Niemi 1996.)
Niemi (ibid.) distinguished between two contrary directions in the debate on teacher development. The one direction is *1) toward more accountability and quality control* and the other direction emphasises *2) deeper and broader ethical responsibility,* which should be based on teacher's professional role and status. She also sees that these same tensions exist also in paradigms on teacher's in-service training. The one trend emphasises 1) *more centralised, competence-based training*, which serves in achieving mainly technical skills. In this approach, the

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quality of teaching and teacher competence is defined by narrow, easily measurable objectives. The other trend emphasises the importance of 2*) educating teachers as agents or active practitioners of educational reforms and changes*. Teachers are also seen as being more responsible for the development of their own profession in a larger sense. In addition, the professional autonomy requires that teachers become active partners in school development.

Fullan (1991) criticized staff development practices in schools for their inability to incorporate with characteristics of effective change processes. Fullan argued that most forms of in-service training are not designed to provide the ongoing, interactive, cumulative learning necessary to develop new conceptions, skills, and behaviour. In addition, failure to realise that there is a need for in-service training during implementation of change process, not just before conducting it (pre-implementation training) is a common problem.
Fullan summarized the main reasons for the failures of in-service training programmes as follows (Fullan 1979,3; see Fullan 1991, 316):

1. Single workshops are widespread but are ineffective.
2. People other than those for whom the in-service is intended frequently select topics.
3. Follow-up support for ideas and practices introduced in in-service programs rarely occurs.
4. Evaluation practices are not systematically implemented.
5. Individual needs and concerns of the learner are not adequately addressed in in-service programs.
6. The majority of programmes involve teachers from different schools and/or school districts, but there is a lack of recognition of the contextual local factors that may have an impact on the system to which they return.
7. Because the conceptual basis for planning and implementation of in-service programs is lacking it is difficult to guarantee the effectiveness of the programs.

Fullan's critique illuminates how the way the in-service training programs as well, as their evaluation is planned may have an essential effect on the actual impact of the training on individual as well, as on organisational levels. Niemi (ibid.) also addressed the problem that in-service training in Finland requires more than random seminars in order for a school community to develop its working culture. She sees the lack of continuum for pre-service to in-service training as a reason for the ineffectiveness of teacher education. The designation of who determines teachers' professional development is important. Fullan (1991) adds that it is evident that in-service training programs in schools are mostly gauged from the needs of interest groups other than teachers. The authors would like to emphasize the meaning of in-service training programs for individuals themselves. The manner in which learning activities are initiated and conducted is also important to notify. The principles of adult learning and development should be integrated into the planning process of in-service training programs. Careful consideration should be given to the unique nature of adult learning (cf. Krupp 1989; see also McQuarrie and Wood 1991,92).

Theoretical Framework

The authors view the practice in Europe of using readymade standardized instruments for evaluation as problematic. The purpose of the study is to design a theoretical evaluation framework for the Evinset project that would be useful for the countries involved in the project. The essential element is the present HRD as it is a strategic component of the organizational culture of a particular school. Before going to the evaluation framework, the authors provide a brief analysis of traditions of program evaluation by using Greene's (1994; see also Syrjälä 1996; Heinonen 1999a and 1999b) categories on evaluation (Table 1).

Among the alternative paradigms for program evaluation, four have captured considerable attention: postpositivism, pragmatism, interpretivism and critical theory (Greene, 1994; Greene and McClintock, 1991). Following table (table 1) illustrates differences between these paradigms according to

a) the assumptions related to man, the world and knowledge underlying each methodology,
b) the ideological view of the significance of the research in decision-making,
c) the values associated with the goals of the programme and research,
d) the audience to whom the evaluation is directed to, and
e) the methods favoured.

The first (postpositivism) framework represents the historically dominant tradition in program evaluation. The essential questions in this framework are oriented around the macro policy issues of programme effectiveness and efficiency. Greene sees the second (pragmatism) framework largely as a response to the failure of experimental science to provide useful information for programme decision-making and management. The value base is very practical and pragmatic. The third (interpretivism) cluster promotes a pluralistic value orientation and case study methodology. The approach seeks to enhance contextualised understanding of the programme. The fourth cluster (critical, normative science) represents the more normative turn in social science. It seeks to illuminate the historical, structural, and value basis of social phenomena, and in doing so, to catalyse political and social change. (Greene 1994.)

Table 1. Major approaches to program evaluation (Green, 1994, 532).

Philosophical Framework	Ideological Framework/ Key Values Promoted	Key Audiences	Preferred Methods	Typical Evaluation Questions
Postpositivism	Systems theory/ efficiency, accountability, theoretical causal knowledge	High-level policy and decision makers	Quantitative experiments and quasi-experiments, system analysis, causal modelling, cost-benefit analysis	Are desired outcomes attained and attributable to the programme? Is this programme the most efficient alternative?
Pragmatism	Management/ practicality, quality control, utility	Mid-level programme managers, administrators, and other decision makers	Eclectic, mixed: structured and unstructured surveys, questionnaires, interviews, observations	Which parts of the programme work well and which need improvement? How effective is the programme with respect to the organisation's goals? With respect to the beneficiaries' needs?
Interpretivism	Pluralism/ understanding, diversity, solidarity	Programme directors, staff, and beneficiaries	Qualitative: case studies, interviews, observations, document review	How do various stakeholders experience the programme?
Critical, normative science	Emancipation, empowerment, social change	Programme beneficiaries, their communities, other 'powerless' groups	Participatory: stakeholder participation in varied structured and unstructured quantitative and qualitative designs and methods; historical analysis, social criticism	In what ways are the premises, goals, or activities of the programme serving to maintain power and resources inequities in the society?

Greene's table is important in that it illuminates how different evaluation methodologies are oriented around the information needs of different audiences – from the macro programme- and cost-effectiveness questions of policy makers to the micro questions of the significance or of the meaning of the programme for individuals. Greene emphasizes that it is not the methods that distinguish one evaluation methodology from another, but rather whose questions are addressed and which values promoted. Greene also discusses how the different audiences represent implicitly or explicitly different values and political stances. (Heinonen 1999a and 1999b.)

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The underlying theoretical framework is based on a pragmatism approach to program evaluation. This pragmatic philosophy is a relevant framework for evaluation of in-service training in the Evinset project. The goals of the Evinset project are practical, assigning equal importance to quality control and evaluation. The knowledge interest in evaluation is also practical. One might ask for example, which parts of the training program work well and which need improvement, how effective is the training program with respect to the school's goals (school development plan) and with respect to the teachers' needs (staff development plan)? Methods for conducting the evaluation may vary; typical is the use of mix-methodology.

Propositions

The authors propose a stakeholder-based framework for evaluation of in-service training programs in the Evinset project. Such evaluation can provide school development officers (SDO) information about the effectiveness of the in-service training programs with respect to the organisation's goals and the beneficiaries' needs. In the evaluation model, the depth of stakeholder participation is either extensive or substantial in all phases of evaluation (planning, conducting and utilizing evaluation findings) of in-service training programs. Control of decision making in the proposed model is balanced: school development officers and teachers conduct the evaluation in co-operation and partnership with other stakeholders.

During the 1990s, there was a growing interest in stakeholder-based evaluation although the concept itself was used in a quite varying ways. Cousins and Whitmore (1998) presented five different forms of stakeholder-based evaluation. They distinguished five forms of stakeholder-based evaluation according to

a) control of the evaluation process, which may vary from researcher controlled to practitioner controlled evaluation,
b) stakeholder selection for participation, which may vary from selection of all legitimate groups to selection of primary users only, and
c) depth of participation , which may vary from consultation to deep participation. The participation seems to essential question in all the forms of stakeholder-based evaluation. Table 2 presents a summary of Cousins's and Whitmore's analysis.

Table 2. Forms of Stakeholder-based evaluation by goals and process dimensions. A summary of table presented by Cousins and Whitmore (1998,12-13).

Label	*Goals/Functions*	*Control of decision making*	*Selection of participants*	*Depth of participation*
Stakeholder-based evaluation	Practical: evaluation utilisation; some emphasis on political aspects of evaluation	Evaluator: co-ordinator of activities and technical aspects of the evaluation	All legitimate groups: representation is key to offsetting ill effects of program micro politics	Limited: stakeholders consulted at planning and interpretation process
School-based evaluation	Practical: support for programme decision making and problem solving	Balanced: evaluator trains school-based personnel who do their own inquiry	Primary users: school-based personnel, mostly people who implement the program	Extensive: participation in all phases of evaluation
Democratic evaluation	Political: legitimate use of evaluation in pluralistic society	Balanced: evaluator and participants work in partnership	All legitimate groups: representation among participants is pivotal	Moderate: stakeholders control interpretation and reporting

Developmental evaluation	Practical: program improvement; evaluation utilisation	Balanced: evaluator and participants work in partnership	Primary users: mostly program developers and people who implement the program	Substantial: ongoing involvement and participation
Empowerment evaluation	Political: empowerment, illumination, self-determination	Participants almost complete control, facilitated by the evaluator	Primary users: usually key program personnel; sometimes wider groups included	Extensive: participation in all phases of the evaluation

In spite of differences among these five alternatives to stakeholder-based evaluation, there are also some fundamental commonalties. All stakeholder-based evaluation alternatives imply a basic assumption that programs have multiple stakeholders although the idea who these stakeholders are varies. The authors use Weiss's (1983a, 84) definition: '*... to mean either the members of groups that are palpably affected by the programme and who therefore will conceivably be affected by the evaluative conclusions about the programme or the members of groups that make decisions about the future of the programme, such as decisions to continue or discontinue funding or to alter modes of programme operation.*'

Thus, stakeholders have a personal interest for the evaluation. The stakeholder concept represents an appreciation that each programme affects many groups, which may have divergent and often competitive concerns, different interests and information about the programme, and which also may hold different power positions to make decisions about the programme. For example, programme sponsors' questions and concerns may differ from those of programme implementers. (Weiss 1983b and 1995.)

In stakeholder-based evaluation, it is on the evaluator's responsibility to reveal and answer the questions that those groups who have been identified as stakeholders may have. To put it briefly, in stakeholder-based evaluation the evaluator seeks to obtain as many perspectives as possible. The aim is to deliver an evaluation that is representative and fair, and collaborates in some ways with individuals and/or groups who have a stake in the programme being evaluated. (Bryk 1983; Guba and Lincoln 1989; Heinonen 1999a and 1999b.)

The authors propose a model which applies ideas from Nevo's (1993 and 1994) school based evaluation model (see also Alvik 1995; Cousins and Whitmore 1998) and Patton's (1994 and 1997; see also Cousins and Whitmore 1998) developmental /utilisation-focused evaluation as a practical evaluation model for the Evinset-project (see table 2).

For example, Nevo (1993,1994; see also Cousins and Whitmore 1998) has recommended developing 'evaluation-mindedness' in schools through school-based mechanisms for evaluation. Such mechanisms may provide a basis for dialogue between school staff and those providing in-service training activities.

Practical goal of evaluation in the suggested model is to provide support for staff development officers in schools for improving the quality of staff development practices. Thus, in the evaluation model we see the utilization of evaluation findings into practice important.

Although there is no formula to follow when undertaking stakeholder-based evaluation, some important phases or issues may be identified. Usually, stakeholder-based evaluation begins by identifying stakeholders and their concerns, claims, and issues. In the proposed model, the primary users of evaluation information are considered as stakeholders or essential audiences. These stakeholders may be school-based personnel (teachers), program developers and people who implement the training (staff development officers in schools and mid-level program managers and trainers in the outside training companies or institutions, administrators such as principals and other decision-makers).

Finally, what is essential in the evaluation model, is that evaluation of in-service training programs is integrated into the organizational practices of schools. It is not an event-driven procedure conducted by an external evaluation consultant. Instead, it is an ongoing process where evaluation team members facilitate the continuous learning of the members in the school organization (cf. Preskill and Torres 1999). The authors have created a model (see Figure 1, page 7) that shows relationships among HRD activities, evaluation, staff development officer in the school, and outside providers on in-service training programs.

The major goal of HRD activities in a school is to develop and support the organization's self-renewing capacity by training and improving the performance of teachers through specific learning activities. In our model the concept of strategic HRD relates to the way in which school as an organization develops its strategic training plans (staff development plan) to link training to the organizational objectives (school development plan). Consequently, we emphasize that the design of schools' staff development plan should not be taken as a separate procedure distinct from the design of the school's organizational development practices including school development plan.

Our model also takes into account the role of staff development officer as a mediator between school's HRD activities and outside providers of in-service training programs. Staff development officers conduct need assessments in schools to uncover the gaps between ideal and actual performance as either deficiency marking past or present performance, or opportunities impelling future job changes. In addition, we see the role of staff development officers in schools as internal change agents. They support teachers' individual development and facilitate school's organizational development by providing learning activities (in-service training programs) that enhance the skills, competencies, knowledge, and attitudes of teachers that are needed for organizational efficiency (see also Gilley and Eggland 1989).

Contributions to New Knowledge in HRD

This model provides systems development approach to HRD in public schools for the partners involved in the Evinset project – Belgium, Finland, Greece and the United Kingdom. The idea of HRD as a strategic component of staff development and the resulting stakeholder evaluation are critical to this multi-nation project.

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Figure 1. HRD in School Development